# ECE 417

Machine Problem 3
Convolutional Nerual Network

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### 1 Introduction

In this machine problem, we will develop a image recognizer by using the method of Convolutional Neural Network. We use the test data to train our Convolutional Neural Network and then use the test data to test the accuracy. The architecture used for this MP is shown below:

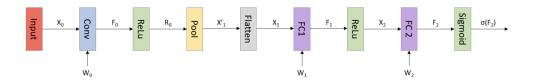


Figure 1: Architecture for MP3

# 2 Algorithm

#### Extract the data feature and Normalize

In this part, we load the image and separate them to training set and validation set. Then, we shuffle the training set by shuffle function and batchify them with the same batch size. Next, we normalize the feature in training set by dividing the value with 256 because the RGB value is between 0 to 255 to keep the pixel value in range (0, 1).

# Forward Propagation

In forward propagation part, we can calculate our lost and store some information like  $R_0$  and  $F_1$  and use them to update our weight in backward propagation.

• 2D Convolution

Using the following formula to calculate the 2D convolution with filter  $W_0$ . We initialize the  $W_0$  to  $N(0,0.05^2)$ . The size of  $W_0$  should be  $5 \times 5 \times 3$ .

$$u[n_1,n_2,j,k]*x[n1,n2,j] = \sum_j \sum_{m_1} \sum_{m_2} u[n_1-m_1,n_2-m_2,j,k]x[m_1,m_2,j]$$

After 2-D convolution, we first change the dimension of the image from  $100 \times 100$  to  $96 \times 96$ . Also, the channels of the output are not the channels of the input anymore although in this mp, the numbers of channels are both 3 for input and output channels.

#### • First ReLU Layer

We add the activation function (ReLU) to introduce non-linearity into the network.

$$ReLU(x) = max(0, x)$$

#### • Max pooling

In this step, we max use the maximum number in the region of max pool window, and record the chosen number in R0 mask. After the max pooling, we can reduce the size the input and the dimension become  $8 \times 8 \times 3$ . The formular for max pooling is

$$X_1'[n_1, n_2, k] = \max_{(m_1, m_2) \in A(n_1, n_2)} \max(0, R_0[m_1, m_2, k])$$

#### • Flatten Data

Take a 4D array and flatten it into a 2D array. The shape of  $X_1'$  is  $N \times 8 \times 8 \times 3$  and after the pooling, the shape of the  $X_1$  is  $N \times 192$ .

#### • First Fully Connected Layer

In this part, we will need to derive the linear combination of input feature with filter. The size of input feature  $X_1$ , is  $N \times 192$  where 192 is the number of input features and filter  $W_1$  is of size  $192 \times 2$  where 2 is the number of output fully connected nodes. After fully connected, we can reduce the dimension of the neural network.

#### • Second ReLU Layer

In this part, we add the activation function to introduce non-linearity into the network. For this step, we also choose ReLU function as our activation function.

#### • Second Fully connected Layer

In this part, we will need to derive the linear combination of Input feature and filter. In this part, there will be one fully connected node. • Sigmoid Function

In this part, we use the Sigmoid function as the activation function and introduce non-linearity in our neural network. The function of Sigmoid function is the following:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

• Loss Function After we find  $\sigma(F_2)$ , we can calculate the lost by the following equation:

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} -y_i log(\sigma(f_{2i})) - (1 - y_i) log(1 - \sigma(f_{2i}))$$

### Test Forward Propagation

After we complete the forward pass, we run the code on the  $cnn_-fwd$  function with the pre-trained weights  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$  and  $W_2$ . The result is following figure:

```
weights = np.load('weights.npz')
W0 = weights['W0']
W1 = weights['W1']
W2 = weights['W2']

# record the time for the execution
start_time = time.time()
sig, cache = cnn_fwd(val_set[0], W0, W1, W2, mp_len)
train_acc = len(np.where(np.round(sig) == val_set[1])[0])/len(val_set[1])
print("train_loss:", loss(sig, val_set[1]), "train_acc:", train_acc)
print("---total cost is %s seconds ---" % (time.time() - start_time))
train_loss: [0.23266417] train_acc: 0.9175
---total cost is 8.927119970321655 seconds ---
```

Figure 2: Forward Test

# **Backward Propagation**

In backward propagation part, we use the gradient descent algorithm to update our our weight  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$ , and  $W_2$ .

The equation for gradient descent algorithm is

$$W_i \leftarrow W_i - \eta \frac{\partial L}{\partial W_i} \text{ for } i = 0, 1, 2$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate of the model. We set  $\eta=0.1$  at the very beginning.

In this program, we will update the W0,W1,W2 by the gradient descent algorithm in the following procedure:

• Update  $W_2$ In this part, we will find the  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_2}$  in the following substeps:

1. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial F_2} = \frac{1}{N} (\sigma(F_2) - Y)$$

$$2. \ \frac{\partial L}{\partial W_2} = X_2^T \frac{\partial L}{\partial F_2}$$

• Update  $W_1$ In this part, we will find the  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_1}$  in the following substeps:

1. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial X_2} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial F_2} W_2^T$$

2. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial F_1} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial X_2} \bigcirc unitsetp(F_1)$$

Notice here, the  $\bigcirc$  means element-wise multiplication.

$$3. \ \frac{\partial L}{\partial W_1} = X_1^T \frac{\partial L}{\partial F_1}$$

• Update  $W_0$ 

In this part, we will find the  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_0}$  in the following substeps:

1. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial X_1'} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial F_1} W_1^T$$

2. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial X_1} = reshape(\frac{\partial L}{\partial X_1'})$$

Since in the forward propagation, the flatten operation just reshape the size of the 2D array, we need to undo the reshape operation to get the correct size of the matrix  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial X_1}$ 

3.  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial R_0}$ 

In this step, we reverse the step of max pooling by using the  $R_0$  mask matrix stored in cache.

4. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial F_0} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial R_0} \bigcirc unitsetp(F_0)$$

5. 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_0}$$

At last, we get  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_0}$  by redo the 2D convolution. The formula is:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_0[m_1, m_2]} = \sum_{n_1} \sum_{n_2} \frac{\partial L}{\partial F_0[n_1, n_2]} \frac{\partial F_0[n_1, n_2]}{\partial W_0[m_1, m_2]}$$
(1)

$$= \sum_{n_1} \sum_{n_2} \frac{\partial L}{\partial F_0[n_1, n_2]} X_0[n_1 - m_1, n_2 - m_2]$$
 (2)

This step can be implemented by signal.correlate2d function followed by flipping the derived matrix.

### Test Backward Propagation

After we complete the backward pass, we run the code on the  $cnn\_bwd$  function with all weights  $W_0$ ,  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  being ones. The result is following figure:

```
# Make backprop testing batch
X_bp = np.vstack([train_set[0][0:8,:,:,:], train_set[0][-9:-1,:,:,:]])
Y_bp = np.vstack([train_set[1][0:8], train_set[1][-9:-1]])
# Initialize weights to all ones
# YOUR CODE HERE
W0 = np.ones like(weights['W0'])
W1 = np.ones like(weights['W1'])
W2 = np.ones like(weights['W2'])
# Update weights once
# YOUR CODE HERE
sig, cache = cnn_fwd(X_bp, W0, W1, W2, mp_len)
dW0, dW1, dW2 = cnn_bwd(X_bp, Y_bp, W1, W2, mp_len, cache)
W0, W1, W2 = update(W0, W1, W2, dW0, dW1, dW2, lr)
print("W2 value:", np.sum(W2))
print("W1 value:", np.sum(W1))
print("W0 value:", np.sum(W0))
W2 value: -881.56533203125
W1 value: -499.5653320312501
W0 value: -658.5653320312501
```

Figure 3: Backward Test

Notice here, the results of our model have a offset of 47 compared to the given reference results. This is caused by the fact that the order of the image read by given function is different.

#### Iteration

In this step, we combine the forward and backward process mentioned above and iterate for 20 epoches. After we finish one iteration, we will bachify the training data again. The reason why we need to do this is that we need to avoid overfitting. After every epoch, we record the loss and the accuracy of the model. This helps us plot the accuracy versus epoch and loss versus epoch.

### 3 Result

First figure is the accuracy vs epoch for the lab.

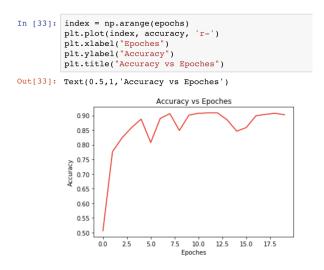


Figure 4: Accuracy vs Epoch

Second figure is the loss vs epoch for the lab.

Following figure shows the accuracy for the trained weights on the validation set.

Figure 5: Accuracy vs Epoch

```
start_time = time.time()
sig, cache = cnn_fwd(val_set[0], W0, W1, W2, mp_len)
test_acc = len(np.where(np.round(sig) == val_set[1])[0])/len(val_set[1])
print("test_loss:", loss(sig, val_set[1]), "test_acc:", test_acc)
print("---total cost is %s seconds ---- % (time.time() - start_time))

test_loss: [0.45490156] test_acc: 0.905
---total cost is 9.189043045043945 seconds ---
```

Figure 6: Accuracy vs Epoch

Following figure gives the confusion matrix for the model.

In the confusion matrix, we can see that the model is very accuracy on detecting elephant but not very well on detecting lionfish. In this next section (Analysis), we can see that why lionfish is harder to recognize.

Following figure gives the result of the image after applying the convolution.

# 4 Analysis

• Normalize Data When we extract data, we should normalize them by divide data by

print(confus		, ,,	val_set[1])
Con	fusion Matr	ix	
	elephant	loinfish	   
elephant	0.960	0.040	 
lionfish	0.150	0.850	
[[0.96 0.04] [0.15 0.85]	]		

Figure 7: Confusion Matrix

256. The reason why we need to normalize the data is that when we process the training, we first use the input data to do the forward pass and then use the gradient descent to update the weights. We update the weights by subtracting the product of the learning rate and gradient of loss from previous weights. If we do not normalize the input data, then if two features have different range (for example, one is 200 and the other is around 10), then the update of the weights will have totally different influence on these features. Therefore, we want to normalize the input to the same scale as the learning rate.

#### • Plot of Accuracy vs Epoch

At the first 4 epoches, our accuracy increases fast due to the learning procoess of the model. We also notice that the accuracy sometimes decrease significantly. We think the reason why it decreases is that the learning rate is too large in that epoch. In the previous epoch, the weights are closed the local optimal value, and after one iteration, the weights are updated but miss the optimal value because learning rate is relatively large compared to the gap between the current weights and the optimal weights. But this does not often happen and at last, the accuracy converges to approximate 90%. To fix the problem that the accuracy might bounce up and down, we add a decay in learning rate, which helps the accuracy converge. This process is described in Extra Credit part.

• Convolve Input Images with Trained Weights

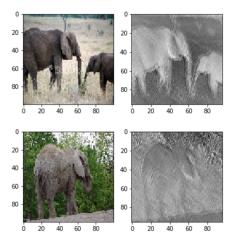


Figure 8: Elephant Image

In this experiment, we convolve the input image with trained weights  $W_0$  and the graph is shown above. We find that after convolution, we can generate the outline of the input image and we believe that after the convolution, it learned the outline of the input image.

#### • Comment on the Classification

After we test the accuracy, we find that the lionfish class is confused most and the reason is that the color of lionfish is closer to the environment than elements so that after convolving with the filter, the outline is not clear and therefore the model declare a wrong label. The feature that confuse the model is color because after we check the picture that produce the wrong label, we find that in these pictures, the color of lionfish is close to the color of coral around it and the outline is not clear after convolution with  $W_0$ .

The second reason is that the picture itself is blurry just like the third picture above and we even cannot distinguish what it is by our eyes.

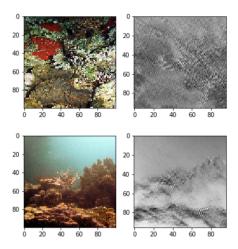


Figure 9: Lionfish Image

## 5 Extra Credit

### 5.1 Data Argumentation

#### • Introducion

In this part, we use the data argumentation to generate more training data to feed in the model and finally make the model have a higher accuracy on the test of validation set.

#### • Algorithm

For every input image, we generate a new image by rotation, scaling, shifting and interpolation. For an input image I(u,v), we generate the output image J[x,y]. Notice here the parenthesis () used in input image and square brackets [] used in output image. The goal of data argumentation is to generate new image with the same size (here a  $100 \times 100 \times 3$  3D array). Usually if the output coordinates x, y are integers, the correspond input coordinates u, v are not integers and therefore we need to interpolate. To perform the transformation of the image, we do the transformation of the coordinates.

#### • Coordinates Transform

Let  $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , then we can write the transformation of the coordinates as the matrix-vector multiplication as following:

$$\vec{u} = T\vec{x}$$

where T is the transformation matrix. We can find the pixel of the output image at [x, y] as the pixel of the input image at (u, v). In our implementation, we have three kinds of transformation. The first is rotation. This can be captured by a matrix  $T_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , and we set  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}$  to rotate 30 degrees. Our second transformation is scaling. The matrix corresponding to this is  $T_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , which scale the horizontal axis by  $\frac{2}{3}$ . At last, we shift the output image to the left by 10 pixels by applying the last matrix.  $T_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . Therefore, the relations between input coordinates and output coordinates are

$$\vec{u} = T_3 T_2 T_1 \vec{x}$$

#### Interpolation

As mentioned above, we need to do the interpolation since we do not have the pixel value at (u, v) in input image. We use the linear interpolation which find the pixel value at (u, v) by linearly combine the nearest four pixels around point (u, v). The interpolation formular is given by

$$I(u,v) = \sum_{m} \sum_{n} I[m,n]h(u-m,v-n)$$

For linear interpolation, the filter h is given by

$$h(u,v) = \max\{0, (1-|u|)(1-|v|)\}$$

With the linear interpolation, the summation above to derive I(u, v) can be written as the sum of following 4 terms (suppose  $m = \lfloor u \rfloor$ ,

$$n = \lfloor v \rfloor$$
,  $e = u - m$  and  $f = v - m$ )

$$I(u,v) = (1-e)(1-f)I[m,n] + (1-e)fI[m,n+1] + e(1-f)I[m+1,n] + efI[m+1,n+1]$$
(3)

#### • Result

After applying the data argumentation of the training set, the size of the training set increases from 2000 to 4000 and the plot for accuracy and loss are following figures.

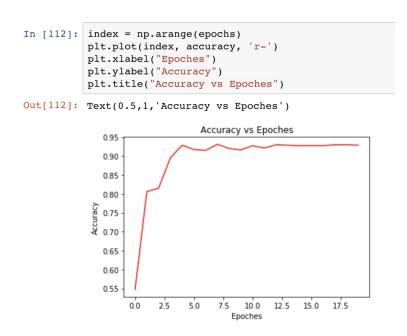


Figure 10: Accuracy vs Epoch

```
In [113]: plt.plot(index, error, 'b-')
            plt.xlabel("Epoches")
            plt.ylabel("Loss")
            plt.title("Loss vs Epoches")
Out[113]: Text(0.5,1,'Loss vs Epoches')
                                    Loss vs Epoches
               0.55
               0.50
               0.45
               0.40
             Loss
               0.35
               0.30
               0.25
               0.20
                                      7.5
                                           10.0
                                                 12.5
                                                            17.5
                    0.0
                          2.5
                                5.0
                                                      15.0
                                        Epoches
```

Figure 11: Loss vs Epoch

From the plot, we can see that the accuracy increasees to roughly 93% compared to the roughly 90% when not applying the data argumentation.

# 5.2 Gradient Descent Decay

As mentioned above, if not applying the decay in learning rate, the accuracy of the model sometimes bounce significant between 80% and 90%. Therefore, we decide to decrease the learning rate while the training is processing. We set a decay of 0.5 when accuracy exceed 90%. This means that if the accuracy is greater than 0.9, the learning rate for next epoch will be halved compared to this epoch. In this way, the accuracy will become more smooth than before and the result is shown in the following figure.

Figure 12: Accuracy vs Epoch

```
plt.plot(index, error, 'b-')
plt.xlabel("Epoches")
plt.ylabel("Loss")
plt.title("Loss vs Epoches")

Text(0.5,1, 'Loss vs Epoches')

Loss vs Epoches

0.65
0.65
0.60
0.55
0.50
0.45
0.50
0.55
0.50
0.55
Epoches
```

Figure 13: Loss vs Epoch